# BIRTH DEFECT RISK FACTOR SERIES: GASTROSCHISIS

### **DEFINITION**

Gastroschisis is an abdominal wall defect involving herniation of the intestines and sometimes the liver outside of the abdomen. The defect occurs lateral to the umbilicus, usually on the right, and never includes a covering sac. The defect may be confused with other abdominal wall defects such as omphalocele and body stalk anomaly. Infants with gastroschisis tend to have fewer additional birth defects, including chromosomal abnormalities, and a higher survival rate than other abdominal wall defects, particularly omphalocele (Barisic et al., 2001; Forrester and Merz, 1999a; Rankin et al., 1999; Tan et al.,1996; Calzolari et al., 1995; Morrow et al., 1993; Torfs et al., 1990; Roeper et al., 1987; Carpenter et al., 1984; Mann et al., 1984; Bugge and Hauge, 1983; Baird and MacDonald, 1981).

Over the past several decades, women carrying a fetus with gastroschisis have been found to have elevated maternal serum levels of alpha-fetoprotein (Canick and Saller, 1993). Prenatal screening of this substance, along with ultrasonography (Vintzileos et al., 1987), have allowed gastroschisis to be identified in utero. Studies from various birth defects surveillance systems have found that, in regions where elective termination is allowed, the birth prevalence of gastroschisis is reduced, although this difference was small compared with other abdominal wall defects (Stoll et al., 2001; Barisic et al., 2001; Forrester and Merz, 1999b; Rankin et al., 1999; Byron-Scott et al., 1998; Riley et al., 1998; Heydanus et al., 1996; Calzolari et al., 1995; Chi et al., 1995; Stoll et al., 1995; Julian-Reynier et al., 1994; Morrow et al., 1993; Stoll et al., 1992).

# **EMBRYOLOGY**

Prior to the tenth week of gestation, the intestine of the fetus herniates into the umbilical stalk. At 10-12 weeks' gestation, the intestine retracts into the abdomen. If this retraction fails to occur, gastroschisis may result. This failure may result from vascular disruption (Hoyme et al., 1983; de Vries, 1980)

# DEMOGRAPHIC AND REPRODUCTIVE FACTORS

Several studies have investigated the relationship of **race/ethnicity** to gastroschisis and failed to find any association (Torfs et al., 1994; Yang et al., 1992; Roeper et al., 1987). One study in Hawaii found gastroschisis prevalence to be lower in Far East Asians than whites, Pacific Islanders, and Filipinos; however, this difference disappeared when the rates were adjusted for maternal age (Forrester and Merz, 1999a). Another investigation observed no significant difference in risk of abdominal wall defects in infants born to Vietnamese women compared with infants born to non-Hispanic white women in California (Shaw et al., 2002).

**Secular trends** have been observed in gastroschisis prevalence since the 1970s. Overall, gastroschisis rates have increased around the world (Bugge and Holm, 2002; Forrester and Merz, 1999a; Rankin et al., 1999; Tan et al., 1996; Roeper et al., 1987; Martinez-Frias et al., 1984; Hemminki et al., 1982), although this trend has not always been noted (Yang et al., 1992; Goldbaum et al., 1990; Carpenter et al., 1984; Bugge and Hauge, 1983; Baird and MacDonald, 1981). At least for some studies examining earlier periods, this trend may be due to misclassification of gastroschisis as other abdominal wall defects in the first part of the interval examined; however, for the studies examining later periods, this is less likely to have been a plausible explanation for the prevalence increase.

Prevalence of gastroschisis shows wide variation by geographic location, both within and between

countries (Tan et al., 1996; Goldbaum et al., 1990; Roeper et al., 1987; Hemminki et al., 1982). One investigation failed to identify any association between gastroschisis and **altitude** (Castilla et al., 1999).

Literature that examined **maternal age** risk for gastroschisis found much higher rates for very young mothers (Bugge and Holm, 2002; Barisic et al., 2001; Stoll et al., 2001; Hollier et al., 2000; Forrester and Merz, 1999a; Rankin et al., 1999; Byron-Scott et al., 1998; Calzolari et al., 1995; Haddow et al., 1993; Werler et al., 1992a; Yang et al., 1992; Goldbaum et al., 1990; Torfs et al., 1990; Roeper et al., 1987; Martinez-Frias et al., 1984; Bugge and Hauge, 1983; Hemminki et al., 1982). One study identified a decline in gastroschisis risk with increasing **parity**, although this observation was due to confounding by maternal age (Byron-Scott et al., 1998). Other studies found no relationship between gastroschisis rates and parity (Torfs et al., 1994; Roeper et al., 1987). An association of gastroschisis risk with **previous elective terminations** and a **short interval between menarche and first pregnancy** has been reported (Torfs et al., 1994), although one study did not report any link between previous elective terminations and gastroschisis (Werler et al., 1992a). These relationships may reflect either a biological effect or sociodemographic factors.

**Infant sex** is associated with the risk for gastroschisis. Males are more likely than females to have gastroschisis (Forrester and Merz, 1999a; Riley et al., 1998; Tan et al., 1996; Calzolari et al., 1995; Torfs et al., 1994; Goldbaum et al., 1990; Roeper et al., 1987; Carpenter et al., 1984; Hemminki et al., 1982; Baird and MacDonald, 1981); however, not all studies have reported this association (Stoll et al., 2001). Gastroschisis is also associated with lower **birth weight**, **prematurity**, and **intrauterine growth retardation** but not **plurality** (Rasmussen et al., 2001; Stoll et al., 2001; Riley et al., 1998; Mili et al., 1991; Khoury et al., 1988). However, one study reported increased risk of abdominal wall defects with multiple gestation pregnancy (Mastroiacovo et al., 1999). One investigation reported no statistically significant association between gastroschisis and **macrosomia** (Waller et al., 2001).

There does not appear to be an association between parental **consanguinity** and gastroschisis (Rittler et al., 2001).

# FACTORS IN LIFESTYLE OR ENVIRONMENT

Since gastroschisis risk is significantly increased with young maternal age, many studies have investigated factors that may be associated with younger women. Maternal **socioeconomic status** has been found to affect gastroschisis risk. One study reported that demographic variables indicating low socioeconomic status were associated with increased rates of gastroschisis. This included lower levels of **maternal education** and lower **family income** (Torfs et al., 1994). However, another investigation failed to find an association between less than twelve years of education and gastroschisis risk (Werler et al., 1992a). A third study reported an increased risk of abdominal wall defects with socioeconomic deprivation, although the difference was not statistically significant (Vrijheid et al., 2000).

In relation to **maternal occupation**, one study has suggested a link between increased gastroschisis risk and commercial and sales work (Hemminki et al., 1982). Another study found an association between gastroschisis and maternal exposure to **solvents** and **colorants** (Torfs et al., 1996).

Living in proximity to **hazardous waste sites** or various **industries** has not been found to affect risk of gastroschisis (Castilla et al., 2000; Dolk et al., 1998), although one investigation found a slightly increased risk of abdominal wall defects with proximity to **landfill sites** (Elliott et al., 2001). There does not appear to be an association between **parental farming** occupation or **pesticide** exposure and risk of gastroschisis (Kristensen et al., 1997), or **water chlorination** and abdominal wall hernia (Kallen and Robert, 2000).

One study has tentatively suggested that inadequacies in the mother's **diet** may increase risk for gastroschisis (Torfs et al., 1998). Another study found low maternal prepregnancy **body mass index** to

be associated with gastroschisis (Lam 1999). One investigation reported an increased rate of abdominal wall defects among infants born to non-diabetic **obese** women (Moore et al., 2000), while another investigation reported no association between maternal obesity and gastroschisis (Watkins et al., 2001). Maternal **hyperthyroidism** and **hypothyroidism** do not appear to increase risk of gastroschisis (Khoury et al., 1989). One investigation reported no association between maternal **fever**, **upper respiratory infection**, or **allergy** and gastroschisis (Werler et al., 2002).

Women who **smoked** were more likely to have an infant with gastroschisis (Torfs et al., 1994; Haddow et al., 1993; Goldbaum et al., 1990), although not all investigations found this effect (Werler et al., 1992a). Maternal consumption of caffeinated and decaffeinated **coffee** has not been found to increase gastroschisis risk (Werler et al., 1992a). One study reported a potential association between periconceptional **X-ray** exposure and gastroschisis (Torfs et al., 1996). Maternal **alcohol** use has been linked to higher rates of gastroschisis (Torfs et al., 1994; Werler et al., 1992a), as has **recreational drug** use (cocaine, amphetamine, marijuana, or LSD)(Torfs et al., 1994, Drongowski et al., 1991).

The link between maternal **cocaine** use and gastroschisis risk is important because cocaine is a vasoconstrictor. One hypothesis offered for the etiology of gastroschisis is that it is a vascular disruption defect (Hoyme et al., 1983; de Vries, 1980). Further support for this hypothesis is provided by studies that found increased rates of gastroschisis among infants born to mothers who had used the vasoactive medications **salicylates** (**aspirin**), **pseudoephedrine**, **acetaminophen**, and **phenylpropanolamine** (Werler et al., 2002; Martinez-Frias et al., 1997; Torfs et al., 1996; Werler et al., 1992b), although one of these studies found no association between phenylpropanolamine, **ibuprofen**, **antihistamines**, **guaifenesin**, or **dextromethorphan** and gastroschisis (Werler et al., 2002).

In one investigation, **antibiotics**, **antinauseants**, **sulfonamides**, and **oral contraceptives** were not linked to gastroschisis risk (Torfs et al., 1996). Another study reported no association between maternal use of the antibiotic **oxytetracycline** during pregnancy and omphalocele/gastroschisis (Czeizel and Rockenbauer, 2000). Recent investigations found no relationship between **cephalosporin antibiotics**, **nalidixic acid**, **ampicillin**, or the **benzodiazepines** nitrazepam, medazepam, tofisopam, alprazolum, and clonazepam and omphalocele or gastroschisis (Eros et al., 2002; Czeizel et al., 2001a; Czeizel et al., 2001b; Czeizel et al., 2001c). Gastroschisis does not appear to be associated with **misoprostol**, a synthetic prostaglandin used for elective termination (Orioli and Castilla, 2000).

Maternal **folic acid** use does not appear to influence risk of abdominal wall defects (Czeizel et al. et al., 1996). Furthermore, a study that examined **co-trimoxazole**, a combination of trimethoprim and sulfamethoxazole that is a folic acid antagonist, failed to find any association between the medication and abdominal wall defects (Czeizel, 1990).

### REFERENCES

Baird PA, MacDonald EC. An epidemiologic study of congenital malformations of the anterior abdominal wall in more than half a million consecutive live births. Am J Hum Genet 1981;33:470-478.

Barisic I, Clementi M, Hausler M, Gjergja R, Kern J, Stoll C, The Euroscan Study Group. Evaluation of prenatal ultrasound diagnosis of fetal abdominal wall defect by 19 European registries. Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol 2001;18:309-316.

Bugge M, Hauge M.. Gastroschisis og omphalocele i Danmark. Ugeskr Laeg 1983;145:1323-1327.

Bugge M, Holm NV. Abdominal wall defects in Denmark, 1970-89. Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol 2002;16:73-81.

Byron-Scott R, Haan E, Chan A, Bower C, Scott H, Clark K. A population-based study of abdominal wall defects in South Australia and Western Australia. Ped Perinatal Epidemiol 1998;12:136-151.

Calzolari E, Bianchi F, Dolk F, Milan M, EUROCAT Working Group. Omphalocele and gastroschisis in Europe: A survey of 3 million births 1980-1990. Am J Med Genet 1995;58:187-194.

Canick JA, Saller DN. Maternal serum screening for aneuploidy and open fetal defects. Prenat Diagn 1993; 20: 443-54.

Carpenter MW, Curci MR, Dibbins AW, Haddow JE. Perinatal management of ventral wall defects. Obstet Gynecol 1984;64:646-651.

Castilla EE, Campana H, Camelo JS. Economic activity and congenital anomalies: an ecologic study in Argentina. Environ Health Perspect 2000;108:193-197.

Castilla EE, Lopez-Camelo JS, Campana H. Altitude as a risk factor for congenital anomalies. Am J Med Genet 1999;86:9-14.

Chi LH, Stone DH, Gilmour WH. Impact of prenatal screening and diagnosis on the epidemiology of structural congenital anomalies. J Med Screen 1995;2:67-70.

Czeizel A. A case-control analysis of the teratogenic effects of co-trimoxazole. Reprod Toxicol 1990;4:305-313.

Czeizel AE, Toth M, Rockenbauer M. Population-based case control study of folic acid supplementation during pregnancy. Teratology 1996;53:345-351.

Czeizel AE, Rockenbauer M. A population-based case-control teratologic study of oral oxytetracycline treatment during pregnancy. Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol 2000;88:27-33.

Czeizel AE, Rockenbauer M, Sorensen HT, Olsen J. Use of cephalosporins during pregnancy and in the presence of congenital abnormalities: a population-based, case-control study. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2001a;184:1289-1296.

Czeizel AE, Sorensen HT, Rockenbauer M, Olsen J. A population-based case-control teratologic study of nalidixic acid. Int J Gynaecol Obstet 2001b;73:221-228.

Czeizel AE, Rockenbauer M, Sorensen HT, Olsen J. A population-based case-control teratologic study of ampicillin treatment during pregnancy. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2001c;185:140-147.

de Vries PA. The pathenogenesis of gastroschisis and omphalocele. J Pediatr Surg 1980;15:245-251.

Dolk H, Vrijheid M, Armstrong B, Abramsky L, Bianchi F, Garne E, Nelen V, Robert E, Scott JE, Stone D, Tenconi R. Risk of congenital anomalies near hazardous-waste landfill sites in Europe: the EUROHAZCON study. Lancet 1998;352:423-427.

Drongowski RA, Smith RK, Coran AG, Klein MD. Contribution of demographic and environmental factors to the etiology of gastroschisis: A hypothesis. Fetal Diagn Ther 1991;6:14-27.

Elliott P, Briggs D, Morris S, de Hoogh C, Hurt C, Jensen TK, Maitland I, Richardson S, Wakefield J, Jarup L. Risk of adverse birth outcomes in populations living near landfill sites. BMJ 2001;323:363-368.

Eros E, Czeizel AE, Rockenbauer M, Sorensen HT, Olsen J. A population-based case-control teratologic study of nitrazepam, medazepam, tofisopam, alprazolum and clonazepam treatment during pregnancy. Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol 2002;101:147-154.

Forrester MB, Merz RD. Epidemiology of abdominal wall defects, Hawaii, 1986-1997. Teratology 1999a;60:117-123.

Forrester MB, Merz RD. Impact of demographic factors on prenatal diagnosis and elective pregnancy termination because of abdominal wall defects, Hawaii, 1986-1997. Fetal Diagn Ther 1999b;14:206-211.

Goldbaum G, Daling J, MilhamS. Risk factors for gastroschisis. Teratology 1990;42:397-403.

Haddow JE, Palomaki GE, Holman MS. Young maternal age and smoking during pregnancy as risk factors for gastroschisis. Teratology 1993;47:225-228.

Hemminki H, Saloniemi I, Kyyronen P, Kekomaki M. Gastroschisis and omphalocele in Finland in the 1970s: prevalence at birth and its correlates. J Epidemiol Comm Health 1982;36:289-293.

Heydanus R, Raats MA, Tibboel D, Los FJ, Wladimiroff JW. Prenatal diagnosis of fetal abdominal wall defects: A retrospective analysis of 44 cases. Prenat Diagn 1996;16:411-417.

Hollier LM, Leveno KJ, Kelly MA, MCIntire DD, Cunningham FG. Maternal age and malformations in singleton births. Obstet Gynecol 2000;96:701-706.

Hoyme HE, Jones MC, Jones KL. Gastroschisis: Abdominal wall disruption secondary to early gestational interruption of the omphalomesenteric artery. Semin Perinatol 1983;7:294-298.

Julian-Reynier C, Philip N, Scheiner C, Aurran Y, Chabal F, Maron A, Gombert A, Ayme S. Impact of prenatal diagnosis by ultrasound on the prevalence of congenital anomalies at birth in southern France. J Epidemiol Community Health 1994;48:290-296.

Kallen BA, Robert E. Drinking water chlorination and delivery outcome-a registry-based study in Sweden. Reprod Toxicol 2000;14:303-309.

Khoury MJ, Becerra JE, d'Almada PJ. Maternal thyroid disease and risk of birth defects in offspring: a population-based case-control study. Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol 1989;3:402-420.

Khoury MJ, Erickson JD, Cordero JF, McCarthy BJ. Congenital malformations and intrauterine growth retardation: a population study. Pediatrics 1988;82:83-90.

Kristensen P, Irgens LM, Andersen A, Bye AS, Sundheim L. Birth defects among offspring of Norwegian farmers, 1967-1991. Epidemiology 1997;8:537-544.

Lam PK, Torfs CP, Brand RJ. A low pregnancy body mass index is a risk factor for an offspring with gastroschisis. Epidemiology 1999;10:717-721.

Mann L, Ferguson-Smith MA, Desai M, Gibson AA, Raine PA. Prenatal assessment of anterior abdominal wall defects and their prognosis. Prenat Diagn 1984;4:427-435.

Martinez-Frias ML, Rodriguez-Pinilla E, Prieto L. Prenatal exposure to salicylates and gastroschisis: a case-control study. Teratology 1997;56:241-3.

Martinez-Frias ML, Salvador J, Prieto L, Zaplana J. Epidemiological study of gastroschisis and omphalocele in Spain. Teratology 1984;29:377-382.

Mastroiacovo P, Castilla EE, Arpino C, Botting B,

Cocchi G, Goujard J, Marinacci C, Merlob P, Metneki J, Mutchinick O, Ritvanen A, Rosano A. Congenital malformations in twins: an international study. Am J Med Genet 1999;83:117-124.

Mili F, Edmonds LD, Khoury MJ, McClearn AB. Prevalence of birth defects among low-birth-weight infants. A population study. Am J Dis Child 1991;145:1313-1318.

Moore LL, Singer MR, Bradlee ML, Rothman KJ, Milunsky A. A prospective study of the risk of congenital defects associated with maternal obesity and diabetes mellitus. Epidemiology 2000;11:689-694.

Morrow RJ, Whittle MJ, McNay MB, Raine PA, Gibson AA, Crossley J. Prenatal diagnosis and management of anterior abdominal wall defects in the West of Scotland. Prenat Diagn 1993;13:111-115.

Orioli IM, Castilla EE. Epidemiological assessment of misoprostol teratogenicity. BJOG 2000;107:519-523.

Rankin J, Dillon E, Wright C. Congenital anterior abdominal wall defects in the North of England, 1986-1996: Occurrence and outcome. Prenat Diagn 1999;19:662-668.

Rasmussen SA, Moore CA, Paulozzi LJ, Rhodenhiser EP. Risk for birth defects among premature infants: A population-based study. J Pediatr 2001;138:668-673.

Riley MM, Halliday JL, Lumley JM. Congenital malformations in Victoria, Australia, 1983-95: an overview of infant characteristics. J Paediatr Child Health 1998;34:233-240.

Rittler M, Liascovich R, Lopez-Camelo J, Castilla EE. Parental consanguinity in specific types of congenital anomalies. Am J Med Genet 2001;102:36-43.

Roeper PJ, Harris J, Lee G, Neutra R. Secular rates and correlates for gastroschisis in California (1968-1977). Teratology 1987;35:203-210.

Shaw GM, Carmichael SL, Nelson V. Congenital malformations in offspring of Vietnamese women in California, 1985-97. Teratology 2002a;65:121-124.

Stoll C, Alembik Y, Dott B, Roth MP. Risk factors in congenital abdominal wall defects

(omphalocele and gastroschisi): a study in a series of 265,858 consecutive births. Ann Genet 2001;44:201-208.

Stoll C, Dott B, Alembik Y, Roth MP. Evaluation of routine prenatal diagnosis by a registry of congenital anomalies. Prenat Diagn 1995;15:791-800.

Stoll C, Alembik Y, Dott B, Roth MP, Finck S. Evaluation of prenatal diagnosis by a registry of congenital anomalies. Prenat Diagn 1992;12:263-270.

Tan KH, Kilby MD, Whittle MJ, Beattie BR, Booth IW, Botting BJ. Congenital anterior abdominal wall defects in England and Wales 1987-93: Retrospective analysis of OPCS data. BMJ 1996;313:903-906.

Torfs C, Curry C, Roeper P. Gastroschisis. J Pediatr 1990;116:1-6.

Torfs CP, Velie EM, Oechsli FW, Bateson TF, Curry CJR. A population-based study of gastroschisis: Demographic, pregnancy, and lifestyle risk factors. Teratology 1994;50:44-53.

Torfs CP, Katz EA, Bateson TF, Lam PK, Curry CJ. Maternal medications and environmental exposures as risk factors for gastroschisis. Teratology 1996;54:84-92

Torfs CP, Lam PK, Schaffer DM. Association between mothers' nutrient intake and their offspring's risk of gastroschisis. Teratology 1998;58:241-250.

Vintzileos AM, Campbell WA, Nochimson DJ, Weinbaum PJ. Antenatal evaluation and management of ultrasonically detected fetal anomalies. Obstet Gynecol 1987; 69: 640-60.

Vrijheid M, Dolk H, Stone D, Abramsky L, Alberman E, Scott JE. Socioeconomic inequalities in risk of congenital anomaly. Arch Dis Child 2000;82:349-52.

Waller DK, Keddie AM, Canfield MA, Scheuerle AE. Do infants with major congenital anomalies have an excess of macrosomia? Teratology 2001;64:311-317.

Watkins M, Honein M, Rasmussen S. Maternal obesity and abdominal wall defects. Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol 2001;15:A35-A36.

Werler MM, Sheehan JE, Mitchell AA. Maternal medication use and risks of gastroschisis and small intestinal atresia. Am J Epidemiol 2002;155:26-31.

Werler MM, Mitchell AA, Shapiro S. Demographic, reproductive, medical, and environmental factors in relation to gastroschisis. Teratology 1992a;45:353-360.

Werler MM, Mitchell AA, Shapiro S. First trimester maternal medication use in relation to gastroschisis. Teratology 1992b;45:361-367.

Yang P, Beaty TH, Khoury MJ, Chee E, Stewart W, Gordis L. Genetic-epidemiologic study of omphalocele and gastroschisis: Evidence for heterogeneity. Am J Med Genet 1992;44:668-675.

**Please Note:** The primary purpose of this report is to provide background necessary for conducting cluster investigations. It summarizes literature about risk factors associated with this defect. The strengths and limitations of each reference were not critically examined prior to inclusion in this report. Consumers and professionals using this information are advised to consult the references given for more in-depth information.

This report is for information purposes only and is not intended to diagnose, cure, mitigate, treat, or prevent disease or other conditions and is not intended to provide a determination or assessment of the state of health. Individuals affected by this condition should consult their physician and when appropriate, seek genetic counseling.